HOW NEW WORDS COME INTO A LANGUAGE

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Introduction

Linguists' point out all living languages are dynamic and change with time. The language that you speak today is different from the language that your parents' speak, and it is different from the language that you spoke as a child or even last year. Changes in a language occur slowly on a small time scale, but over the centuries the evolution of a language is dramatic. The English that was spoken in the Middle Ages would be incomprehensible to the average native English speaker of today. Over time languages undergo major changes in terms of grammar and word order, and sound and sound combinations. A language's vocabulary also changes as words undergo semantic changes. Words can go through a process of broadening or generalization in which the spread of a word's meaning moves from a narrow to broader class; or words can go through a process of specialization or narrowing in which a word's meaning shrinks. Semantically words can also go through melioration or an improvement in meaning, or they can go through a process of pejoration or the taking on of a negative meaning (Trask, 1996). Languages also change through the addition of new words. New words come into a language because languages are shaped by the needs of the users. Language users either create new words with their existing lexicon or borrow new words from other languages in order to fulfil their linguistic needs. There are many ways that new words maybe acquired, some of them occur very frequently and others occur infrequently. This paper will examine how new words come into a language through borrowing of loan words and loan translations, derivation,

compounding, blending, clipping, acronyms and initialisms, coinage and eponyms, and conversion and back-formation.

BORROWING

Many languages borrow words from other languages and it is the most common way new words enter a language (Trask, 1996). Borrowing occurs when a word or a morpheme is taken from another language and added to the recipient's vocabulary. In borrowing, a word or a morpheme may be directly borrowed from another language through direct contact with its speakers; or it can be borrowed through an intermediary language. An example of the former occurred when the Normans invaded England and English under went a huge change as many French words entered its vocabulary. However other new words entered English through an intermediary language, e.g., the word *algebra* was borrowed by English speakers from Spanish, who in turn borrowed it from Arabic. English has borrowed heavily from 120 languages (Crystal, 1995). Indeed borrowing is the most common source for new words in English (Yule, 1985). Some examples of loan words in English, which have been adapted, are *alcohol* (Arabic), *boss* (Dutch), *piano* (Italian), and *zebra* (Bantu) (Yule, 1985). More recent loan words in English are *intifada* (Palestinian), and *perestroika*, and *glasnost* (Russian).

One way new words are absorbed from one language to another language is directly through loan words. McMahon (1994) points out that loan words are either adopted or adapted by the recipient language in terms of the recipient's phonological process and phonotactic patterns. Loan words that are adopted are accepted and integrated morphosyntactically and semantically into the recipient language. Examples of adopted English words in French are *le parking*, *le gadget*, and *le shopping*. Some loan words change little after being introduced into the native language; for example the loan words *abbot* from the Latin *abbas*, and *cell* from the Lain *cella* or chamber have changed very slightly since first being taken into the English language in the Middle Ages. However, other loan words are adapted by the recipient language to conform

to the language's phonological rules. For instance English nouns with final voiced stops like *job* are borrowed into German with a final voiceless stop giving [jɒb] to conform to the rule of final devoicing. Similarly, languages, which permit only CV syllables, may delete consonants from loans, or insert vowels; for example in New Guinea Tok Pisin the English word *parliament* has been adapted to *palamen*. Languages with rigid phonotactic restrictions and syllable structure constraints have more extreme phonotactic adaptations. For instance loan words from English into Japanese are altered to fit the rigid CVCV structure and thus English words are either lengthened as in *turakutura* (*tractor*) or clipped as in *seku-hara* (*sexual harassment*) (McMahon, 1994). Another way loan words are adapted into a language is through the process of sound alteration known as i-mutation or vowel harmony (Crystal, 1995). In English this process happened in the seventh century when Old English vowel sounds shifted and speakers started to pronounce their vowels more towards the front of their mouths. The result was a dramatic change in the way words in English were pronounced. Latin loan words that were adopted into English before this Great Vowel Shift retained their original vowel sound as in *castellum* (*castle*), but others like *caesus* became *cyse* (*cheese*). In English the restructuring of the vowel system resulted in the original diphthongs becoming pure vowels and new diphthongs emerging (Crystal, 1995).

All borrowed words eventually are adapted by the recipient language and follow the recipient language's grammar patterns. For instance all English nouns must be assigned a grammatical gender when they are borrowed into German or Norwegian (McMahon, 1994). Similarly the vast majority of noun loan words in English have been assimilated to the productive rules of English; thus we say *commas* not *commata* for the plural for the Latin loan word *comma* and *sputnikis* not *spuntniki* for the Russian plural of *sputnik* (Bynon, 1977). However these rules are not systematically applied and thus in English we have retained some of the original Greek and Latin loan words plural forms as in *phenomena*, *indices*, *formulae*, and *bacteria*. (Trask, 1996). Languages

adapt loan words and these adaptations follow basic rules in the recipient's language. However overtime these routines may shift and change. McMahon (1994) points out that early Greek and Romance verbs borrowed into Rumanian have the ending *–isì* and *–arisì*, while more recent ones may have *–izà* and *–à*. There are no hard and fast rules to determine if a loan word will be adopted or adapted into a language. When adopted loans first enter a language, they tend to be seen as foreign and then are accepted and made to conform and behave like native elements. Thus a borrowed word will regularly undergo all sound changes, which begin after its adoption, just as a native language would (McMahon, 1994).

Borrowing often relies upon bilingualism and this, as Crystal (1995) and McMahon (1994) point out this can be a quite limited bilingualism and may merely entail that the recipient language speaker believes he understands what the other language speaker is referring to. Trask (1996) points out that misunderstandings and adjustments are very common in borrowed items. For instance the English word *cafeteria* is borrowed from the Spanish word meaning '*coffee shop*', but in English it means a restaurant where customers collect their meals on trays at counters and carry them to the table. Likewise the English word *footing* has been borrowed into French and Spanish to mean '*jogging*', a meaning that it does not have in English. Sometimes when speakers with a limited command of the language they are borrowing from they invent a word. For example English speakers invented the word '*pen name*' and believed it to be a translation of the French *nom de plum*, but no such word exists in French, though there is *nom de guerre* (Trask, 1996). Some degree of semantic reinterpretation is common in the borrowing of loan words. For instance the French and Germans have taken the English '*smoking*' to refer to a *dinner jacket* and the French have taken the English '*dancing*' to mean *dance hall* (Bynon, 1977). The underlying factor in borrowing is projected gain. Speakers borrow words from other languages for several reasons. One reason a new word is borrowed is it may express a new concept or object, which the recipient language

does not have. Such borrowed items often refer to new technology or information, contact with foreign floral and fauna, and culture. Borrowing is frequently bi-directional for example English borrowed from African languages, which in turn borrowed from English for technological vocabulary (McMahon, 1994). Another reason borrowing occurs is for reasons of gaining prestige. In linguistic relationships of unequal prestige, borrowed items tend to move from the more prestigious group to the less prestigious group and will be concentrated in the areas where the most prestigious group controls the most influence. For example after the Norman Conquest many French words were borrowed from the Norman invaders. The words that were adapted into the vocabulary reflected the interests of the French speaking ruling group and fall into the broad categories of church, warfare, and arts and administration. Sometimes loans do enter form the less prestigious group into the more prestigious group, but these words usually have a negative connotation as in the English borrowing from Scottish Gaelic e.g., *banshee* (McMahon, 1994). Where a native word and a similar loan word exist the native word will often occupy a lower register. Sometimes a recipient language borrows a loan from another language to finds a replacement for a native word, which has become obsolete or lost its expressive force. Nouns are the most frequently borrowed class everywhere (Byron, 1977). Trask (1996) observes that this occurs in part because nouns are more numerous than other classes of words. It also happens because new items are more likely to be denoted by nouns, and it partially occurs because nouns as a class are easier to accommodate within the grammar system within the recipient language. In contrast, items of high frequency are usually not borrowed. These words include pronouns, lower numerals, kinship terms, colours like *black*, *red*, and *white*, body parts, simple adjectives like *big*, *small*, *good* and *bad*, natural phenomenon like *sun*, *moon*, *star*, *river*, *night* and grammatical words like *when*, *here*, and *if*.

Languages may borrow whole words directly or may take foreign words and adapt the concept behind the foreign word that is borrowed. This process is known as loan translation or claque (Crystal, 1995). In

claque there is a direct translation of the elements of the borrowed foreign word into the language. Some calques are translated almost word for word into the recipient language for instance the French "*marriage de convenance*" has become "*marriage of convenience*" in English (Fromkin, Blair & Collins, 1996). Other examples of calques are the English words *skyscraper* from the French "*un grate-ciel*" which translates directly to '*scrape the sky*' and the German *Übermensch* or *superman* in English. Other loan translations are adapted to the recipients grammar rules; for example the word *hot dog* with its adjective noun formation has been adjusted in Spanish to fit Spanish syntax and has become "*perror calientes*" (Fromkin et al., 1996). Sometimes a borrowed word may have a corresponding word in the native language. When this happens the native semantic meaning may undergo a change, but often the connotation is derogatory. For instance the Old English word *Hel* referred to a Goddess that guarded the kingdom of the dead. This place was not a place of punishment, but it was given a new negative meaning by the Christian missionaries to Britain in their Christianised word *Hell* (Bynon, 1977). English tends to borrow form and meaning from romance languages, but Russian and German prefer to create new forms with their native resources (Bynon, 1997). Indeed some countries actively discourage borrowing and instead use loan translations and revise obsolete words in their vocabulary and give them new meaning. For example in Iceland loans are discouraged because they are thought to alienate speakers from their native culture. Where loans are absorbed they are adapted to Icelandic patterns and Old Norse words (McMahon, 1994). Other languages like modern day Hebrew have also created new words from old vocabulary to express new ideas that are not found in the language.

Languages can borrow not only whole words, but also affixes like prefixes and suffixes and roots from other languages. English has borrowed many prefixes and suffixes from Latin and Greek words which have been used to create new words that did not exist in Latin or Greek. Latin roots and affixes are often used in English to create new words

especially in the fields of science and technology for example as *thermometer* from Greek thermos *'heat'* and in the field of technology, such as in *television* from the Greek plus Latin *'far seeing'*. The new creations in English are known as neo-classic and have no historical precedence. Loan words have semantic restrictions on productivity (McMahon, 1994). For example in English the adjective ending in *"ed"* is permissible in words like *blue eyed, three legged, red roofed* because the base is inalienably possessed by the noun being modified; some one with blue eyes can not exchange them for brown eyes. Alienable possession rules out adjectives in a 'two carred man' or 'a black shoed lady' because the man may sell the car or the lady exchange her black shoes for green (McMahon, 1994). There are semantic restrictions on the production of loan words for example German and Czech will not allow the mixing of foreign bases and native affixes, nor foreign affixes and native bases (McMahon, 1994). Donor English tends to borrow both the form and meaning from romance languages, but other languages like German and Russian prefer to create a new form from their own native resources (Bynon, 1977). Loan words can also change through folk etymology. This is a process in which a borrowed item seems opaque to the native speaker often because of its foreign origin and is interpreted or has its morphological boundaries shift so that its semantic and morphological structures coincide making it transparent, e.g. an area in London is known as the *'Elephant and Castle'* and is based upon the borrowing *'Infanta of Castile'* (McMahon, 1994).

If a language borrows too many loan words into its language some native speakers may feel the new additions are contaminating their language and culture. Indeed some languages borrow so heavily from other languages that few native words remain as in the case of Albanian (Fromkin et al., 1996). Where there is an influx of foreign loan words from one language to another, the recipient language may under go phonetic change by incorporating foreign phonemes into its language or alter the distribution of existing ones. For instance Huastec, Mexican Mayan language borrowed the phonemes /dg/ from Spanish. In Eng-

lish /ʒ/arose from the medial combinations of /z/ and /j/ in words like *measure* and *treasure*, but when the French loans like *rouge* and *beige* entered the language the distribution of/ʒ/ was extended to include a final sound in a word (McMahon, 1994). Borrowing words and phonemes from another language does change a native language. The Academie Francaise in France tries to stem the tide of borrowed words into French through legislation. If too many borrowed loan words come into the language the native language may loose status and the foreign language may become one of the official languages. If the new language continues to spread and dominate the field of every day communication the native language may become discouraged, and even suppressed. Lexical invasion is feared because it can result in the very real threat that of the native language dying out. Today Cumbric, Cornish, Norn, Gaelic, most North American Indian languages, most Australian Aboriginal languages and Hawaiian struggle to retain their identity. The history of the changes that occur in a language reflect to some extent the non-linguistic history of a culture. For instance the names of places in the United States, such as *Harlem* (Dutch), *Maine, Detroit* (French), and *El Paso* and *San Francisco* (Spanish) reflect its multilingual history and patterns of colonialization. Borrowing may often occur in a colonial environment. Countries with a recent history of colonialization often change the borrowed place names of the colonizing group and replace it with a native form, for example *Bombay/Mumbai.* Today English is increasingly being spoken around the world and provides many loan words. Some countries are rejecting English because of its colonial history. Where English exists as an official language it is sometimes being replaced with a native one. For example Kenya's official language since 1974 was changed from English to Swahili (Crystal, 1995).

DERIVIATION

Most English vocabulary arises by making new lexemes out of old ones. Derivation is by far the most common world formation process found in the creation of new words in English (Yule, 1985). This process

involves taking an affix and adding it either to the beginning or the end of a word. An affix is a letter or sound, or group of letters or sounds in other words a morpheme, which is added to a word, in order to change the meaning or function of a word. Affixes are bound forms and can be added to the beginning, middle or end of a word. Affixes are composed of prefixes, suffixes and infixes. Prefixes such as *un-*, *mis-*, and *pre-*are added to the beginning of words to create new words such as *unhappy*, *misrepresent*, and *prejudge*. Suffixes such as *-ful*, *-less*, *-ish*, *ism*, and *-ness* can be added to the end of words to create new words like *beautiful*, *useless*, *boyish*, *terrorism*, and *sadness*. English words can also combine both prefix and a suffix in the same word such as in *disrespectful*, or two suffixes as in *foolishness*. Another type of affix not found in English but found in other languages is an infix. An infix is an affix that is incorporated inside another word. Some South East Asian languages use infixes. For example in Tagalog "*um*" is used to show that a verb is in the past tense, *sutal* means to write and thus–*sumulat* means '*wrote*' (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). Native speakers of English do not use infixes. However it is possible to see the general principal at work in certain expressions, occasionally used by native speakers in emotionally charged, lucky or aggravating circumstances such as *Unfuckingbelievable* or *Absogoddamlutely* (Crystal, 1995; Yule, 1985). There are over 57 varieties of prefixes in English which would help explain why derivation is one of the most common ways for English speakers to create new words, i.e. there is so much variety to choose from. Each language has its own rules for combining affixes with words. In German and Czech neither foreign bases and native affixes nor native bases and foreign affixes can be mixed. In English the prefix *in-*, for example becomes *il-* before words beginning with /l/ as in *illiberal* (McMahon, 1994). Some prefixes have more than one meaning such as *un-* as in *unexpected* or not expected and *un-*, as in *unwrap* or reverse wrapping. Suffixes can also have one meaning or several. In English suffixes do not only alter a word, they also change a words grammatical status–for example, the *ify* ending when added to the noun *beauty* changes it into the verb *beautify*;

similarly the *ing* ending turns the concrete noun *farm* into an abstract one, *farming*. Prefixes rarely cause words to change word class (Crystal, 1995).

COMPOUNDING

Another way that new words come into a language is through compounding. Compounding consists of joining two separate words to create a new one. Compounding is very common in English and German and less common in French and Spanish (Yule, 1985). Compounding can also be found in totally unrelated languages such as Hmong, in South East Asia, which combines *hwj* ('pot') and *kais* ('spout') to produce *hwjkais* ('kettle') (Yule, 1985). All languages have rules for co joining words to form compounds. Compounding is governed by semantic restrictions within a language. In English a compound word can be composed of an adjective and a verb such as *self-made* or two nouns such as *headache*, or a verb and a noun e.g. *crybaby*. In English compounds are stressed differently from a noun phrase. In a compound the first word is stressed such as ***black**bird*, whereas in a noun phrase the second word is stressed as in *black **bird***. The meaning of some compounds are understandable from the two words that make up the compound such as the nouns *wallpaper*, and *doorknob* in English. But the meaning of a compound is not always the sum of its parts; for instance a *blackboard* maybe green or white. There are some compounds that do not seem to relate to the meanings of the individual parts such as a word like *flatfoot* ('detective'), but if you know the origin of the word you can deduce the meaning. Overtime compounds can become opaque and are often reinterpreted by speakers as a monomorphemic words. Many formally transparent compounds are now completely unanalysable; for example the Old English *half-weard* ('loaf-keeper') has become *lord* and *hlaefdige* ('loaf-kneader') has become *lady* (McMahon, 1994). Compounds can in theory be arbitrarily long. However many longer compounds are nonce formations and not widely used. A nonce formation is a word that is created for temporary use.

As McMahon (1994) points out in English the division between compounds and affixation is sometimes vague. In English neo-classical compounding occurs. This involves creating new words from Latin and Greek forms. In neo-classical compounding the borrowed elements are not complete words because they can't stand alone, nor are they affixes because they can compose entire words. For example *astro, electro, naut, phile* and *phobe* can be joined together to create the new words *astronaut,* and *electrophobe.*

BLENDING

Another way new words come into a language is through the process of blending. Blending combines two separate forms to produce a new form. Unlike compounded words, which are composed of two distinct words that can stand on their own, blending usually takes only the beginning of one word and combines it with the end of another word. Thus *smoke* and *fog* become *smog* and *television* and *broadcast* become *telecast.* Lewis Carol was famous for creating blends such as *chortle* from *chuckle* and *snort* (Fromkin et al., 1992). Blends can also be created by taking the first part of both words to create a new word as in *American Indian* being shortened to *Amerind.* Finally a blend can also be created by using one complete word and shortening the second word as in *happen* and *instance* forming *happenstance* in American English. In the 1980's blends became increasingly popular in English due to their use in commercials, contests and advertisement, products, and TV (Crystal, 1995). Blends can also occur in every day speech through substitution error. When this happens the speaker selects two thoughts to be expressed that have some partial similarity or relatedness of meaning, and combines them by accident. An example of such an accidental blend is *splinters* and *blisters* creating the word *splisters* (Fromkin et al., 1996).

CLIPPING, ACRONYMS AND INITIALISMS

Clipping is similar to blending in that it involves the process of

reduction. However unlike blending, which involves shortening two words and combining them, clipping involves shortening one word. Clipping is characterised by removing part of the lexical item rather than an affix. The clipped form will usually be the first syllable or the second syllable of the original word. Thus we get *porn* from *pornography*, *fan* from *fantastic*, and *stroppy* from *obstreperous* (McMahon, 1994). However sometimes a distinct morphological unit is removed and the residue forms a new word as in the clipping *bi* from *bisexual* (McMahon, 1994). Sometimes a clipped word is based upon missegmentation. For instance *delicatessen* is clipped to *deli*, whereas the boundary if guided by the German boundaries should fall between-*delicat* and *essen* (McMahon, 1994). Clipping often occurs in English in casual speech (Yule, 1985).

Another way that words are shortened is through the creation of acronyms. Acronyms are created by using the first initials of several words and are pronounced as spelling dictates. For example *UNESCO* is the acronym for *United Nations Educational Scientific, and Culture Organization.* Often acronyms are used to talk about organizations or businesses but they may also be created to describe a process as in the word *radar*, which means *radio detecting and ranging*, or *laser* from *'light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'*. When words are abbreviated using only the initial letters, but the string is not easily pronounced as a word initialism occurs. An initialism involves pronouncing out each letter of acronym as in *NFL* or *National Football League.* Crystal (1995) points out that native speakers create acronyms and initialisms for several reasons such as the desire for linguistic economy, to help create a concise style that is succinct and precise, and finally to convey a sense of social identity. Initialisms are often used as a kind of society slang as in *PLU 'people like us'* for members to speak in a kind of code to which non-members are excluded. Initialisms can also be used as an abbreviation of expressions found within a group and through which social identy is conveyed such as the World War II expression *OK* (*'all correct'*) used by the armed forces. Today the majority of new

acronyms and initialsms are based upon science, technology, baseball, drug trafficking, the armed forces, and the media (Crystal, 1995) and are daily being created as these areas expand and develop. Eventually many acronyms loose their orthographic capitalization and many speakers cease to perceive them as acronyms such as in the words *laser* and *radar*. Indeed *laser* has been borrowed into French where it is regarded as a simple unanalysable word (McMahon, 1994).

COINAGE AND EPONYMS

Coinage is perhaps the least common process of word formation (McMahon, 1994; Yule, 1985). It primarily involves trade names being identified with the product such as *aspirin* (a medicine), *nylon* (a fabric), *kleenex* (tissue), and *xerox* (a copy machine). Coinage can also involve a word being purposely created by an individual such as the word *blurb* which was created in 1907 by Gelette Burgess (McMahon, 1994). Coinage are also known as neologisms or ex nihilo formations. Coinage can also result in nonce words. Nonce words are words that are created for temporary use to solve an immediate problem. Crystal (1995) sights the example of the word *puddle* and *flood* to combine to describe excess water on the road as a "*fluddle*". Other types of nonce formations occur in comic books to represent sounds or ideas. Many nonce formations are introduced once and are forgotten. However some become much more wide spread such as the word *tut-tut* and *tisk-tisk*. Affixes are commonly used in the coining of new words. The affix *mega* and *gate* are popular affixes that are used to coin expressions such as *mega-trend, mega-city*, or *Watergate, White Watergate*, and *Lloydesgate*.

An eponym is a kind of word coinage in which words are derived from proper names of individuals or places. Over 1500 words like this have been created in English (Fromkin et al., 1996). They include *jumbo* meaning *large* coined after the US circus elephant. Also *sandwich* coined after the fourth Earl of Sandwich who created the modern day sandwhich. Also the word *robot* coined after the mechanical creatures in the Czech writer Karel Capeck's play R.U.R., with the initials standing for

"Rossum's Universal Robots".

CONVERSION AND BACK FORMATION

Perhaps the simplest way that new words come into a language is through the process of conversion. Conversion involves the transfer from one word class to another, with no change in pronunciation. There are nine different ways conversion occurs in English (Crystal, 1995). A verb can become a noun, e.g. *to guess/a guess*. A noun can become a verb, e.g., *paper/to paper*. An adjective can become a verb, e.g., *dirty/to dirty*. A noun can become an adjective such as in its a *cotton/dress*. An adjective can become a noun, e.g., *crazy/a crazy*. Grammatical words can become a noun as in '*too many ifs and buts* . . .' or '*the how and why* . . .'; and an affix can become a noun as in "*ologies and isms*". A phrase can also become a noun as in '*a has-been*' or '*a down and out*'. Finally a grammatical word can become a verb as in '*to down tools*' or '*up and do it*'.

New words can be created by adding affixes, they can also be created by speakers removing an affix or a supposed affix. This process is called back-formation. Back formation is a very specialized type of reduction in English (Yule, 1995). Speakers of English are used to deriving nouns from verbs by adding *-er/-or*; consequently when they hear an unfamiliar noun with its suffix, they may produce a related verb by removing it, although this verb may not have formed the base historically (McMahon, 1994). An example of back-formation in which a noun becomes a verb is seen in *editor* changing to *to edit*. In English back-formation usually involves a noun being reduced to form a verb (Yule, 1985). But verbs can also be reduced to create nouns as in *televise* changing to *television*. Similarly native speakers of English know that adjectives can be formed into verbs by adding a '*y*' to the verb. Thus when native speakers of English come across an adjective such as '*lazy*' they assume the verb is "*to laze*" though historically there is no such verb (McMahon, 1994). Native speakers often create back-formation when they come across borrowed words and make them fit to their own native morphological process. For example the Middle English the word

femele was reconstructed to *female*, which in turn by analogy was shorted to *male*. Likewise the French *cerise 'cherry'* borrowed in Middle English underwent a back-formation when the final [z] was interpreted as a plural marker (McMahon, 1994). Therefore a new singular word was produced by removing the [z] by back-formation and creating the singular *cherry* and the plural *cherries*. Some back-formations are deliberate. Fromkin et al. (1996) provides the example of the word *bikini* which was taken from the Bikini atoll in the Marshal Islands. The first syllable *bi* means *'two'* thus by analogy a *monokini* is a topless swimsuit. Many purists dislike back-formation and see it as the corruption of the language. However since language serves the purposes of its users, innovations in a language show its vitality and creative process. When languages stop growing or atrophy they risk dying.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, all living languages are dynamic and change with time. New words come into a language in order to fulfil the needs of its speakers. There are many ways that new words come into a language. They are through the borrowing of loan words and loan translations, derivation, compounding, blending, clipping, acronyms, intialisms, coinage and eponyms, and conversion and back-formation. When a new word comes into vogue another word often ceases to be used within the language. Speakers create new words to explain new ideas, concepts, technologies, objects, or cultural ideas. Some of these words will have a short life span such as nonce formations, but others last for hundreds of years. All new words whether they are borrowed or created from the existing lexicon within a language must conform to the language's phonetic and grammatical rules. Overtime all words will change in how they are pronounced as the language evolves. Many purists resent the creation of new words within their language and see such new forms as a corrupting influence on the language and the culture. However unless languages evolve, they will stagnate and die. Thus, the creation of new words within a society can be seen as a positive sign that a language is

alive and creative. On the other hand if a culture takes in too many loan words into its native language, the native language will eventually cease to be used. With the increase of globalisation and the wide spread use of English many cultures feel linguistically and culturally threatened by the influx of English into their languages. For the English language teacher how new words come into a language and how non-native speakers view English have several implications. First, many non-native speakers have ambiguous feelings towards learning English especially if they have come from countries that have a history of colonialism, and the teacher needs to take this into account when teaching the language. Secondly, since every language forms new words according to its own rules it is important that the teacher explain some of the most common rules that govern the creation of new words in English. Finally, since borrowing is one of the most common ways all languages bring new words into their lexicon, it is most likely that the English LL has many English loan words that s/he is already familiar with; just as English no doubt contains many loan words or loan translations from their language. Accessing this already existing vocabulary could be a jumping off point for the building of vocabulary in the ESL/EFL classroom.

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